

Ratifying the constitution quizlet answers

I'm not robot!

SECTION 3

- 22. How often does the President have to provide Congress with information about the "state of the Union" (i.e., how the country is doing)?
From 1789 to 1817 - the Constitution does NOT state that the president must give a yearly "state of the Union" address. It also doesn't say that he has to do it in person before Congress. Woodrow Wilson started the modern tradition of delivering an address in person before a joint session of Congress. Richard Nixon's starting back all the way to "China" (different from their "state of the Union" information in writing to Congress and did not appear before them).
- 23. What does it mean that the President shall "recommend" (to Congress) for their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient?
The president will tell Congress what laws he would like to see passed.
- 24. In what sense is it possible for the President to "convene" Congress (which basically means to make them meet, when they are in vacation)?
On extraordinary occasions. It is up to the President to determine what that means.
- 25. Give an example of a circumstance you think would be important enough for the President to convene Congress.
Most Democrats would probably agree that an attack on the nation would qualify. Harry Truman famously convened Congress in the summer of 1948 - an election year - challenging them to live up to their own party platform and pass legislation that would extend Social Security, provide a national health care program, and promote civil rights. He was scolded by Republicans (who controlled Congress) of abusing the convening power for political gain.
President used to convene Congress more frequently. The convening power was used 26 times prior to 1860. However, since then it has only been used once - by Truman in 1948.
- 26. The President has authority to veto one kind of disagreement in Congress. What is it? The type of disagreement is if the Senate and House cannot agree when to start their session, the President can decide for them.
- 27. What people must the President "receive," and what does this mean?
Ambassadors and other public ministers - meaning, official representatives of foreign governments.
- 28. What is the President's responsibility when it comes to the law?
He must do his best to be sure that the laws Congress passes are actually carried out.

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Name: _____

Date: _____

Weekbook: Reconstruction Video Guide

- 1. What is one word to describe the Reconstruction Era?
- 2. The Reconstruction Era is sometimes called the second _____.
a. Revolutionary War
b. Civil War
c. Race War
- 3. Did the violence end after the Civil War?
- 4. April 11, 1865 Abraham Lincoln called for a meeting to discuss what?
a. Reconstruction
b. The Civil War
c. Putting everyone in jail that fought in the South
- 5. Who killed Abraham Lincoln?
a. Abraham Lincoln committed suicide
b. John Doe
c. John Booth
- 6. It is estimated that _____ out of 4 white men in the South were killed or severely injured.
- 7. Radical Republicans wanted change _____.
a. Now
b. In the next few years
c. Never
- 8. Did the South re-join the United States?
- 9. What is sharecropping?
- 10. What were Black Codes?
- 11. Americans were _____ on what to do with blacks.
a. Undecided
b. Decided
- 12. Blacks were marching for their right to _____ they said they deserved this right because they had fought in the civil war.
a. Fight
b. Be free
c. Vote
- 13. Was the police force fair to both blacks and whites in the south after the civil war?
- 14. After the new Reconstruction Acts, _____ were allowed to vote.

Facebook & The First Amendment

When high school student Katie Evans was upset with her teacher, she created a Facebook page mocking her teacher, whom she identified by name, as "the worst teacher I've ever met." She wrote that the page was for "those select students who have had the displeasure of having [the teacher], or simply knowing her and her antics: Here is the place to express your feelings of hatred." Evans took the page down after three days. When the principal learned what she had done, Evans was suspended and removed from the Advanced Placement class. She sued the principal, and a judge ruled that her suit could proceed. This lesson focuses on this issue and Evans' claim that her punishment violated her First Amendment Rights.

Feb 16, 2010

Judge: Dissing a teacher on Facebook
A federal judge in Florida has ruled in favor of a teacher on a Facebook page.

Bill of Rights Worksheet

Read each situation below very carefully. Read the amendment or Bill of Right that is being exercised. Write the number of the amendment or Bill of Right that is being exercised in the space provided.

Guillermo was stopped by a police officer on his way home from school. The police officer wanted to search Guillermo's backpack because he heard a teenage boy had just robbed the candy store on the corner. Guillermo asked the officer, "Do you have a warrant?" The officer said, "No." Guillermo informed the officer that he could not search his bag because it violated his rights.

Penina arrived home one evening to find a member of the United States navy sitting at the dining room table with her parents. Penina quickly turned to her parents and said, "Who is there a military base in our home?" Penina's parents said, "We were told you were going to be a soldier." Penina quickly kicked the soldier out and said to him, "Get out of my house."

Tiffany is upset over the fact that she was not allowed to vote in the primary election in her county. Tiffany decided that she was going to run for office in the city of Madison and presented it to the city council. They decided that she was not allowed to run for office in the city of Madison because she was not a resident of the city.

James, a recent immigrant to the United States, was told that he was not allowed to vote in the primary election in his city. He was amazed at the fact that people in the United States were not allowed to vote in the primary election in their city. He was amazed at the fact that people in the United States were not allowed to vote in the primary election in their city.

Bill of Rights Activities



Chapter 5 - Section 3

Ratifying the Constitution

Main Idea - During the debate on ratification of the Constitution, the Federalists promised to add a Bill of Rights in order to get the Constitution ratified.

Federalists and Antifederalists

- **Ratification** - def. - official approval of the Constitution requiring at least of the 13 states
- **Federalists** - def. - those who supported ratification of the Constitution
 - o Favored new balance between federal and state governments
 - o Favored new system of separation of powers and checks and balances
 - o Leaders - George Washington, James Madison, Alexander Hamilton
 - o Supporters - urban centers, small states
 - o *The Federalist* (aka *The Federalist Papers*) - def. - 85 essays that defended the Constitution
 - Written by Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay
- **Antifederalists** - def. - those who opposed ratification of the Constitution
 - o Opposed to such a strong central government
 - o Angered that Constitution did not include a Bill of Rights
 - o Leaders - Patrick Henry, George Mason, Sam Adams
 - o Supporters - rural areas, larger states

Adoption of a Bill of Rights

- Federalists agreed to Antifederalists' demands to amend the Constitution by creating a Bill of Rights
- **Bill of Rights** - def. - first 10 amendments to the Constitution drafted by James Madison and ratified by 3/4 of the states by 1791
 - o Largely based on George Mason's **Declaration of Rights** used in Virginia
 - o *1st Amendment* - right to freedom of religion, speech, press, political activity
 - o *2nd and 3rd Amendments* - right to bear arms, prevents government from housing troops in private homes
 - o *4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th Amendments* - guarantee fair treatment for individuals suspected or accused of crimes
 - o *9th Amendment* - peoples' rights are not restricted to those listed in the Constitution
 - o *10th Amendment* - people and the states have all powers not specifically granted to the national government
 - o Bill of Rights did not apply to women, native Americans, or slaves - their rights would be expanded later

Strong independent states w/ weak central gov't.	One-house (unicameral) legislature.
Congress can declare war.	Congress can make treaties.
Congress can coin (make) and borrow money.	Congress can make laws but not enforce them.
Congress has no power to tax.	Congress has no power to regulate trade.
No executive branch.	No judicial branch.
Strong central government with certain powers reserved to the states.	Two-house (bicameral) legislature.
Congress can declare war.	Congress can make treaties.
Congress can coin (make) and borrow money.	Congress can make the nation's laws.
Congress can tax.	Congress can regulate trade.
President is commander in chief and carries out the nation's laws.	The supreme court interprets the laws.
Articles of Confederation	Constitution

NOTE TO READERS "Milestones in the History of U.S. Foreign Relations" has been retired and is no longer maintained. For more information, please see the full notice. The Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia met between May and September of 1787 to address the problems of the weak central government that existed under the Articles of Confederation. The United States Constitution that emerged from the convention established a federal government with more specific powers, including those related to conducting relations with foreign governments. Under the reformed federal system, many of the responsibilities for foreign affairs fell under the authority of an executive branch, although important powers, such as treaty ratification, remained the responsibility of the legislative branch. After the necessary number of state ratifications, the Constitution came into effect in 1789 and has served as the basis of the United States Government ever since. Under the Articles of Confederation, the federal government faced many challenges in conducting foreign policy, largely due to its inability to pass or enforce laws that individual states found counter to their interests. The 1783 Treaty of Paris, which ended the American War of Independence, stipulated that debts owed by Americans to British subjects were to be honored, and also stipulated that former British loyalists could bring forth suits in U.S. courts to recover confiscated property. These provisions were unpopular and many states blocked their enforcement. This led to British refusal to vacate military forts in U.S. territory. Additionally, after the war, British traders flooded U.S. markets with British goods, to the detriment of American importers and manufacturers. The Confederation Congress lacked the authority to regulate this trade, and intrastate trade was further hampered by states' own attempts to impose import duties on goods from elsewhere in the United States. Lastly, the Spanish Government, which controlled New Orleans, barred American ships from navigating the Mississippi River. Southern delegates to the Confederation Congress wanted to lift this ban, while coastal merchants, especially in the northeast, were willing to make concessions in exchange for a treaty with otherwise favorable commercial terms. The large majorities necessary for ratification of such measures under the Articles of Confederation often resulted in the deadlock along sectional lines between North and South. In attempting to resolve such issues, as well as problems arising from the payment of debts from the Revolutionary War and other domestic issues, the delegates to the Constitutional Convention created a model of government that relied upon a series of checks and balances by dividing federal authority between the Legislative, the Judicial, and the Executive branches of government. The framers of the Constitution had originally imagined a weak presidency and a strong legislature divided into a House of Representatives and the Senate. Under the Articles of Confederation, considerable minor paperwork had bogged down important business enough that legislators decided to establish an executive branch to deal with routine paperwork. When writing the Constitution, the framers expected the Senate to handle important issues, particularly the ratification of treaties, while the Executive would attend to matters of lesser consequence. However, as deliberations continued, the Executive branch acquired more power to deal with some of the issues that had been a source of sectional tension under the Articles of Confederation—and so the President acquired the authority to conduct foreign relations. The two-thirds clause for ratification of treaties in the Senate, as opposed to a simple majority, allowed the South a greater voice in these matters and assuaged concerns about the attempts to abandon navigation of the Mississippi. The Constitution does not stipulate existence of departments within the executive branch, but the need for such departments was recognized immediately. Congress passed legislation creating the Department of Foreign Affairs in its first session in 1789, and in the same year changed the name to the Department of State after it added several additional domestic duties to the Department. After the ratification of the Constitution in 1789, the machinery of state had been designed, but not yet tested and put to use. The provisions for management of foreign affairs would be put to the test in 1794, when the Senate had the opportunity to accept or reject the controversial treaty with Great Britain negotiated by John Jay. On June 21, 1788, the Constitution became the official framework of the government of the United States of America when New Hampshire became the ninth of 13 states to ratify it. The journey to ratification, however, was a long and arduous process. Until the new Constitution was ratified, the country was governed by the Articles of Confederation. That document was tailored to a newly formed nation made of states acting more like independent, sovereign countries, and it quickly became clear to some of America's leaders that future stability required a stronger, more centralized government. New York's Alexander Hamilton thus led the call for a constitutional convention to reevaluate the nation's governing document. The Confederation Congress endorsed his initiative, and representatives from all 13 states were subsequently invited to convene in Philadelphia on May 25, 1787, to participate in the Convention. The initial purpose of the Convention was for the delegates to amend the Articles of Confederation; however, the ultimate outcome was the proposal and creation of a completely new form of government. Three months later, on September 17, 1787, the Convention concluded with the signing (by 38 out of 41 delegates present) of the new U.S. Constitution. Under Article VII, it was agreed that the document would not be binding until its ratification by nine of the 13 existing states. Hamilton and James Madison led the lobbying efforts for votes in favor of ratifying the Constitution. With assistance from John Jay, they produced the 85 essays known as "The Federalist Papers" that explained and defended how the proposed new government would function. The essays were published in newspapers nationwide. The first state to ratify the Constitution was Delaware on December 7, 1787, followed by Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Georgia, and Connecticut. Some states voiced opposition to the Constitution on the grounds that it did not provide protection for rights such as freedom of speech, religion, and press. However, the terms of the Massachusetts Compromise reached in February 1788 stipulated that amendments to that effect—what became the Bill of Rights—would be immediately proposed. The constitution was subsequently ratified by Massachusetts, Maryland, South Carolina, and, finally, New Hampshire. After ratification, Congress set dates for the first federal elections and the official implementation of the Constitution. Elections were set to take place from Monday, December 15, 1788, to Saturday, January 10, 1789, and the new government was set to begin on March 4, 1789. In the nation's first presidential election, George Washington was elected President and John Adams was elected Vice President. Congress was also restructured to reflect the system of representation created by the Connecticut Compromise at the Constitutional Convention. The Constitution, however, was still evolving. Madison introduced 17 amendments to the Constitution born from the Massachusetts Compromise, of which Congress adopted twelve on September 25, 1789, to send forth to the states for ratification. Ten of those amendments, known as the Bill of Rights, were ratified on December 15, 1791. Even after the Constitution's ratification, the U.S. did not begin to look and function remotely like it does today until several years later. The Constitution was not ratified by all states until May 29, 1790, when Rhode Island finally approved the document, and the Bill of Rights was not ratified to become part of the Constitution until the end of the following year. Moreover, the capital was not set until July 16, 1790, almost a year and half after the general elections took place. The location of the capital was born, like most decisions in the formation of the budding nation, out of negotiation. Hamilton, now Secretary of the Treasury, sought passage of the Funding Act so that the federal government could assume state Revolutionary War debts and thus endow the government with more economic power. Meanwhile, Secretary of State Thomas Jefferson wanted to pass the Residence Act, which would set the location of the nation's capital along the Potomac River and give the South increased political power to check the North's growing economic power by placing the capital in a location friendly to Southern economic interests. The two men struck a deal: Jefferson would persuade Madison, a man with significant influence in the House, to back Hamilton's Funding Act, thereby garnering him the votes it would need to pass. In return, Hamilton would help Jefferson and Madison secure the votes needed to pass the Residence Act. The capital's precise geographic location was left to President Washington, and on January 24, 1791—almost three years after the Constitution was first ratified—land was designated for construction. In order to continue enjoying our site, we ask that you confirm your identity as a human. Thank you very much for your cooperation. There are two important things to know about Article V, the part of the Constitution that spells out how to amend that document. The first is that it's hard to amend the Constitution. The second is that amendments matter a lot less than most people think. Amendments change the text of the Constitution, but—the key point—very important changes happen even when the text of the Constitution stays the same. The Constitution, in practice, definitely changes, but amendments are not the main way that those changes happen. These two things—how hard it is to amend the Constitution, and how so many changes happen without amendments—are opposite sides of the same coin. Because it is so hard to change the text, we have figured out other ways to make the kind of changes that you might expect to get from amending the text. A nation, like other living things, has to adapt if it is to survive. If one means of adaptation is closed off, it has to find another way. That is what the U.S. constitutional system has done. Our constitutional system—our actual system, in the way it actually works, as opposed to what's written down on paper—is changed by Congress, the President, the courts, and often just by changed understandings among the people, even when the text stays the same. Sometimes people say that while the words of the text of the Constitution haven't changed, the "interpretation" of the Constitution has. There's no harm in thinking of it that way. But however you explain it, the fact is that our understanding of what the Constitution means has changed enormously over time, in ways that don't have a lot to do with constitutional amendments. Specifically, these four things are, I think, true: (1) There have been important changes in the basic nature of our government that took place without any amendment to the written Constitution. (2) Several amendments that seemed to change things were added to the Constitution after the change had already happened in most of the country. The amendment didn't cause the change; it just confirmed it. (3) A couple of times, a proposal for a constitutional amendment was rejected—and things changed anyway, in the way the amendment would have changed them. The amendment was formally rejected—it's not in the Constitution's text—but, in practice, it might as well have been adopted. (4) Some amendments that were added to the text tried, but failed, to change things when they were adopted; but many years later, when the country was ready, it changed in the way the amendment had supposedly required long before. Here are some examples of each. (1) Changes that happen even though there's no amendment. For a long time after the nation was founded, the federal government did not do a lot. State governments were much more important. That's changed. Today, federal law affects every aspect of our lives. But you cannot trace that change to any constitutional amendment. Some people will say that, all along, the Constitution gave the federal government the potential to play that important role; the federal government just chose not to. Other people might say that the federal government should not be so powerful. But there is no denying this enormous change in our system, and there's no amendment that caused it. This essay is part of a discussion about Article V with Michael B. Rappaport, Hugh and Hazel Darling Foundation Professor of Law, Director, Center for the Study of Constitutional Originalism, University of San Diego School of Law. Read the full discussion here. (2) Amendments that just confirmed a change that already happened. There are many examples of this, but here is one that a lot of people overlook. When the Constitution was first adopted, the people did not vote for United States Senators; a state's Senators were elected by that state's legislature. The Seventeenth Amendment provided that Senators are elected by popular vote. Many people say that the Seventeenth Amendment made an important change in our system, because it took power away from state governments. Having Senators elected by the people, instead of by state legislators, may have been a big change. But the Seventeenth Amendment did not have much to do with it. Before the Seventeenth Amendment was adopted, most states had already cleverly figured out ways to make sure that the people—not state legislators—elected Senators. For example, several states held a popular vote for the Senate and, while officially that vote didn't count, any state legislator who did not pledge to follow the result of that vote would have a disparaging label next to his name on the ballot. So, as you can imagine, the legislators followed the people's decision. All of that happened before the Constitution was amended. You can compare this change to a change in the way we elect the President. Formally, the President is elected by electors, not by the voters directly. Originally, the idea was that electors would be people with good judgment who would make up their own minds about who should be President. Now, for practical purposes, the electors vote automatically for the candidate who won the vote in their state. No constitutional amendment authorized this major change. (3) Constitutional amendments that were rejected—but in practice, might as well have been adopted. There are a couple of examples, but the clearest one is the Equal Rights Amendment (the "ERA"), which would have forbidden the federal and state governments from denying equal rights on the basis of sex. Congress approved the amendment, but not enough states did, so it never became part of the Constitution. But the Supreme Court interpreted other parts of the Constitution to prevent sex discrimination, and today it is hard to identify any way in which the law would be different if the ERA had been formally added to the Constitution. (4) Amendments that became effective only when the country had changed for other reasons. The Fifteenth Amendment supposedly guaranteed that people could not be kept from voting because of their race. It was added to the Constitution in 1870. But well into the middle of the twentieth century, African-Americans in many parts of the United States were kept from voting by illegal means. It wasn't until the Voting Rights Act of 1965 that the promise of the Fifteenth Amendment was finally kept. If you just picked up a copy of the Constitution and read it, you would be completely misled about this disgraceful history. The Fourteenth Amendment, adopted in 1865, had a similar fate. It was intended to prevent many forms of discrimination against minorities. But its promise was not realized until almost a century later, during the civil rights era. A case can be made that the earliest constitutional amendments did matter. That would include the Bill of Rights, for example, and the Twelfth Amendment, which fixed a problem in the way the President and Vice President were originally chosen. And several amendments have been useful housekeeping measures, like the Twenty-Fifth Amendment, which says what happens if the President is disabled. But if you really want to understand how the United States Constitution changes—in practice, not just on paper—constitutional amendments are a small part of the story. The real action—in many ways, our real Constitution—is elsewhere, in the way the courts, Congress, the President, and the people in their daily lives have brought us the Constitution we have today.

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